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The respects in which the provisions of the Declaration of London of 1909 supplement The Hague Conventions are set forth at length. That in the provisions of some of the Conventions there may be what seem like backward rather than forward steps is acknowledged by the author, particularly in the rules which sanction the extension of warlike measures to neutral property, the use of submarine mines, the elaboration of the category of conditional contraband and the provision for the destruction of neutral vessels. Admitting that the question of policy must for the present enter into the settlement of these rules because the supposed interests of the parties are not identical, the author also raises the point as to whether these supposed interests are not more nearly identical than generally believed. Advocating the freeing of neutrals from the burdens of war as a self-evident principle, he sees progress for the law of war on the sea along the lines which shall limit the interference with neutral rights in maritime warfare as the interference with such rights is limited in land warfare. The author sees in the regulation of the use of the air space one of the great problems for the Third Hague Peace Conference and maintains that even after the work of the International Naval Conference much remains to be done in the task of formulating the rules for war on the sea. He would be inclined to relegate the problem of disarmament and other problems of a political nature to special conferences and to leave to The Hague Conferences the further development of the law of nations.

The book is a convenient summary of the recent conventional agreements showing the progress of international law through the work of conferences. The bibliography as shown in the foot-notes indicates the great attention that has been given to the work of the recent international conferences. An appendix contains the Declaration of London and a list of the States which have ratified the several Hague Conventions up to August 1, 1911.

G. G. WILSON.

The Persian Revolution of 1905-1909. By EDWARD G. BROWNE.
(Cambridge: University Press, 1910. Pp. xxvi, 470).

As is natural in one who has devoted many years to the study of the Persian language and literature, Professor Browne is distinctly a Persophile. The reader of his well-constructed book reaps many

advantages from this fact. A warm sympathy, combined with a complete understanding of the intellectual equipment of the educated Persian, enables Professor Browne to lay bare the heart of the matter. He is also something of a Russophobe, but this leaning can hardly be said to lower the value of his narrative, since he is conscious of it, and careful to make due allowance. If it be added that he is a patriotic Englishman, earnestly desirous that his country's press and government should speak the truth and do the right, three points are established which fix his position firmly.

His method of presentation is admirably adapted to a subject of which the western world knows little, and whose materials are mainly documents in a language read by very few. No important statement of fact and few expressions of opinion are left without the support of definite references. In fact, from one point of view the book may be described as a well-selected and well-arranged series of translations, abstracts, and quotations, connected and interpreted in a moderate and convincing manner. Not the least valuable of the contents of the book to the student of political science is the translation, given in an Appendix, of the "Bases of the Persian Constitution," in particular the "Fundamental Laws of December 30, 1906," and the "Supplementary Fundamental Laws of October 7, 1907."

The author's account of the course of events cannot be reviewed here. A few words about the genesis and the character of the Persian constitution may, however, not be amiss. Fixed laws and a parliament were talked of as early as 1890 (p. 37), but no insistent demand for constitutional government arose until the summer of 1906. At that time, under the leadership of certain *mujtahids*, or learned doctors, supported by nearly all the *Ulema*, or educated Moslems, some thousands of persons took refuge at the British Legation, and thus put such pressure upon the Shah that he promised by the Fârmân of August 5, 1906, to establish a "National Consultative Assembly." A committee of the friends of popular government prepared an Electoral Law which was promulgated September 9th. Direct election, participated in by male Persian subjects over twenty-five years of age, persons of responsibility and favorably known, was to be employed for the choice of 156 deputies. In order that the new scheme might come rapidly into operation, 60 deputies were to be chosen from the capital city, which contains but three per cent of the population, and these were to constitute the Assembly, until the members from the provinces should join them. The Assembly met October 7, and pro-

ceeded with despatch to draw up Fundamental Laws. The first instalment, promulgated December 30, was concerned with the character and powers of the assembly and with the establishment of a Senate of 60 members, 30 of whom were to be appointed by the Shah, and 30 to be elected by the people; in each group one-half were to be chosen from residents of the capital city. The remainder of the provisions usually found in constitutions were fashioned more slowly, and were promulgated October 7, 1907. The hand of the learned doctors is apparent in the opening articles. Islam according to the Shia doctrine of the Twelve Imams is declared to be the official religion of Persia, and a court of constitutionality in the form of a committee of five or more theologians is provided for, to sit in the Assembly and pronounce upon all proposed laws, judging them with reference to conformity with the Sacred Law of Islam. Article 2, which establishes this court, is declared not subject to amendment. Thus the supremacy of the Sacred Law over all other law, which is affirmed also by the Turkish Constitution, is in Persia to be maintained effectively by a special organ of government, irrevocably delivered into the control of the *Ulema*. An elaborate bill of rights sets forth the rights of the nation, the deputies, and the crown. Popular sovereignty is affirmed. The Shah is asserted to have no powers beyond those explicitly stated. The ministers are individually and collectively responsible to both of the Chambers. Finance is to be strictly controlled by the Assembly.

After the overthrow of the first Assembly by Muhammad 'Álí, June 23, 1908, and the consequent revolt of the provinces, and while the nationalists were closing in on Teheran, July 1, 1909, a new Electoral Law was proclaimed, which abrogated the disproportionate representation of Teheran, reduced the number of deputies to 120, and made elaborate provision for a new apportionment, and for election by two stages. Four deputies were to represent the small non-Moslem groups: an Armenian, a Nestorian, a Zoroastrian, and a Jew. The second Assembly was chosen under this law. Meantime the Shah had been deposed, his minor son Ahmad had been crowned, and the way was clear for an attempt at sovereign rule by the Assembly, under the Sacred Law, unhindered by obstructive and reactionary royal power.

Professor Browne's book may yet have to serve as an epitaph; he takes care that it shall not profess to be a prophecy. He has simply followed the "bird of time" "a little way." The book undoubtedly

reveals as regards many Persians (as doomed Mírzá Rizá said, p. 74) "of how feeble a texture these people are, and how they love life, and position." Whether the post-revolutionary Persians will prove to be of so much better stuff that they can maintain their nation in substantial independence, the author hopes but does not venture to predict (p. 350). If they should be overwhelmed prematurely by foreign interference, it will not be the fault of this friend of Persia, who has labored so effectively to make the situation clear.

ALBERT H. LYBYER.

The Story of Korea. By JOSEPH H. LONGFORD. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1911. Pp. vii, 400).

Professor Longford, of King's College, London, has already to his credit what may be considered the best brief and popular history of Japan before the restoration. It might be too much to expect a similar success within a year and in a less familiar field, yet his "Story of Korea" deserves almost equal praise. It is, frankly, a story, told in an easy and popular way. No pretence is made of important contributions to the history of the Hermit Kingdom, but instead judicious use is made of the best of existing authorities. And so within a fairly brief compass a most readable account of the history of Korea is given, from the dark ages to the annexation to Japan.

Although the volume contains many of the desirable features of the earlier work, the use of the best material, the skilful condensation, the attractive style, yet it lacks the personal knowledge and enthusiasm which make the "Story of Japan" so notable. The merit of a brief history consists largely in the choice of the subjects treated, and exception may be taken to the proportions assigned by Professor Longford in the present work. Too little attention seems to be paid to the history of the Korean people and too much to other things. One chapter is given to "The Country and the People" but two chapters tell of Hideyoshi's fruitless invasion of 1592-98. One chapter covers the history from 1600 to 1868, but two chapters are devoted to the early Christian propaganda and persecution. And the important period of the Japanese protectorate is covered in fifteen pages. A necessary result of the treatment by topics is the lack of chronological sequence which is at times disturbing to the reader and necessitates frequent reference to earlier or later chapters.